PARENT WORKSHOP

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ABSTRACT

This project is of descriptive and developmental design. It delineates the "at risk" condition of many children in our society and identifies lack of adequate parenting skills as a probable cause. It describes psychodrama techniques as an effective way to teach positive parenting skills. A four-day workshop using psychodrama techniques is presented for the purpose of helping parents increase effective parenting skills.

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I. INTRODUCTION AND METHODS

A. Introduction

Few countries are as child-conscious as America. The late John F. Kennedy wrote: "Children are the world's most valuable resource and its best hope for the future." Radical changes in family relations have taken place over the past 15 years, and have deeply affected the younger generation. America's children are caught in a whirlwind of declining educational achievement, rising numbers of vicious crimes, increasing alcoholism and drug abuse, sweeping changes in sexual standards, and the all-powerful presence of television. American life has changed, and with it, American children (Burr & Maidens, 1980, p. 1).

In their book, America's Troubled Children (1980), Jeanne Burr and Melinda Maidens report that the origins of America's troubled children can be traced to America's troubled families. The family is a child's first environment; it is there that a child receives his first impression of the world and develops attitudes that carry him through later life. The family is the primary unit for raising children, and whatever affects the family will affect the children.

President Jimmy Carter acknowledged the impact of

family life on national affairs when he launched the White House Conference on Families in July 1979. It was an ambitious attempt to compile a comprehensive study of what had happened to families in America as a result of broad social and economic changes. Its purpose, in Carter's words, was to "see what we can do, not simply as a government, but as a nation, to strengthen American families" (Burr & Maidens, 1980, p. 3).

Few subjects inspire more soaring rhetoric than the subject of children. Yet, in their individual and collective actions, Americans fall short of their words. In this age of easy kicks and fuzzy values, children's problems have become so complicated and so desperate that many adults do not know what to say or do (Zaldivar & Spears, 1991).

"The way you help children is through their families," said John D. Rockefeller IV, D-Va., the Chairman of the National Commission on Children. After 2½ years of investigation, the bipartisan 34-member panel unanimously warned that, unless the country acts quickly, it will lose ground in a global economy that demands well-trained, technologically sophisticated workers. The Commission concluded that there is ample evidence that children were worse off in 1990 than they

were in 1970 (Zaldivar & Spears, 1991, p. 1B).

This Commission, created by Congress, was comprised of leading health, education, and social welfare experts, children's advocates, business representatives, Bush administrators, and elected office holders. They reported that poverty, parental indifference, and governmental ineptitude are keeping too many of America's children from reaching a fulfilling, productive adulthood. They further urged that parents be more vigilant and aggressive guardians of what their children are exposed to (Zaldivar & Spears, 1991).

The Children's Defense Fund (1988) released the following statistics concerning the plight of children in America:

1. One out of every five children in America is poor.
2. 2.2 million children and adolescents were reported abused, neglected, or both.
3. Four percent of all children 3-6 years old cared for themselves while their mothers worked.
4. Almost 50% of high school seniors report having used illegal drugs. Over 3 million teenagers are chronic alcoholics.
5. 11% of all babies born had some trace of drugs. The numbers are 3-4 times as high as in 1985.
6. More than 23 million adults are

functionally illiterate. 13% of all teenagers join this group annually.

7. Although the number of births to teens has declined steadily since 1970, the percentage of births to unmarried teens has doubled since then to 61.6%.

8. About 1.5 million children and adolescents run away from home each year. As many as one-third do not return to their families.

9. Between 7.5 million and 9.5 million children and adolescents suffer from emotional problems that require mental health services. No more than one-third of these are getting the services they need.

We know that children do not thrive in poverty; however, neither do some children thrive in over-indulged abundance. Bruce Baldwin, a psychologist and the author of Beyond the Cornucopia Kids: How to Raise Healthy Achieving Children (1989), said a growing number of privileged youth suffers from spiritual poverty. The symptoms include boredom, low self-esteem, lack of motivation—the products, he suggests, of "the family wealth that insulates children from challenges, risks, and consequences" (p. 74).

The New York Times has reported that psychologists and psychiatrists, in increasing numbers, are finding parallels between children of the urban rich and poor ". . . they both suffer from broken homes and absentee parents . . . Both move around easily accessible drugs,

alcohol, and sex" (Kutner, March 1, 1990, p. 3).

Recent polls indicate that three out of four American adults feel that problems facing children today are worse than in decades past. America is a nation growing richer while many of its children grow poorer. And as the rest of the nation enjoys these benefits, the children are left behind (Children's Defense Fund, 1988).

Marian Wright Edelman, President of Children's Defense Fund, has described the alarming state of children in the nation:

> Only a society with an eroded ethical base would allow more than a fifth of its children to live in abject poverty in the midst of greatest affluence the world has ever known and to have the audacity to think it does not and will not affect us all. Yet the poor black youths who shoot up drugs on street corners and the rich white youths who shoot up drugs in their mansions share a common disconnectedness from any larger hope and purpose, sense of community, and shared striving. How can we expect homeless children with no space or place of their own to respect the private property of others as they grow up? The rising rates of teen suicides, drug and alcohol abuse, and out-of-wedlock births among youths of all races and income groups in every area of our country reflect a moral drift that cries out for correction. The task of leadership today is to give our youths and Americans a sense that we can regain control over our families and our national destiny, and can make a positive difference individually and collectively in building a decent, safe nation and world. (Children's Defense Fund, 1988, p. xix)

From the 1940s through the 1970s, California exerted national leadership in developing progressive attitudes toward children's needs, and in developing novel responses to the challenges of children's health care, delinquency, abuse, and neglect. That leadership has waned over the past 10 years. Despite the changing context in which children live, few new initiatives have been mounted on behalf of California's children (Policy Analysis for California Education [PACE], 1989).

The 1980s were a dismal decade for children in California as well as the entire nation, says a study released February 1, 1989 by the Center for the Study of Social Policy. The Kids Count Data Book, which ranks states according to eight indicators of child well-being, shows increases in the percent of children living in poverty, the teen violent death rate, the percentage of teens having babies out of wedlock, and the juvenile incarceration rate. The only significant progress was made in infant mortality and child death rates (PACE, 1989).

According to the Policy Analysis for California Education, School of Education, Berkeley, California, California ranked 30th on the national composite rankings, despite having the 9th highest per capita

income. The number of children living in poverty increased 40% to an average of 21.3% in 1988, giving the state a ranking of 35th. Nationwide, poverty rates were 43.8% for black children, 38.2% for Hispanics, and 15.4% for whites.

The juvenile incarceration rate jumped 41% nationwide. In California, the juvenile incarceration rate increased 82% from 1979 to 1987 (PACE, 1989).

According to PACE (1989), the new problems confronting California's children include the changing family structure, the impact of immigration, and the emergence of a group of very disadvantaged parents. Children are at great risk of inadequate physical, emotional, academic, and social development. These new problems will require new policy initiatives and, perhaps, new structures for the development of public policy (PACE, 1989).

Superintendent of Public Instruction, William Honig, predicted that in a class of 30 high school students now enrolled in 10th grade:

> Three students will have sexually transmitted diseases;
> Eight will be on public assistance;
> Four will speak no English;
> Eight will be at least two years behind in reading and mathematics;
> One will be a victim of child abuse;
> Three will grow up in public housing;
> Seven will not be employable in regular jobs;

> Three will be teen parents; and
> Seven will not graduate from high school.
> (Santa Clara Office of Education, September 1989, p. 3)

In a 1989 public opinion survey commissioned by Children Now, a non-partisan, California-based organization for children, Californians indicated they were well aware of the challenges facing children today, and were ready and willing to take action to ameliorate the condition of children in the state. Some of the results of the poll indicate:

> 69% believe children should be the first priority for state funding.
>
> 83% believe that only when we have a partnership between parents, state government, and businesses can we really do something to help children.
>
> 80% support greater investment in a number of programs for children even if it means an increase in their taxes.
>
> 77% believe that California children are facing a crisis.
>
> 96% believe it is important for California to rank in the top 10 states in providing health care and education for children. (Lazarus & Ellwood, 1991, p. 17)

At present, California corporations pay $21 billion for remedial education programs for workers; by the year 2000, costs will total $40 billion. State costs for foster care will rise from $700 million today, to nearly $6 billion in the year 2000. The

costs of crime, welfare, and emergency health care will also skyrocket. Individual taxpayers will pick up the state tab, but still face the threat of escalating drugs and violence to themselves and their children (Children Now, 1990).

For the past three years, Children Now has issued the California Children's Report Card. Through an analysis of 27 widely-respected outcome indicators in five areas, education, health, safety, teen years, and family life, Children Now found that the situation of children in this state is, indeed, serious. Based on this analysis, Children Now's Distinguished Citizen's Panel of Graders gave California a "D" for the way it treats children for the third year running. Forty-one states have better rates of completion (Children Now, 1991).

In the Silicon Valley, the child in need is very evident. While Santa Clara County boasts the highest median household income in California, at $57,000 a year, one in eight children lives in poverty. If current trends continue, one in four Californians will be living in poverty by the year 2000 (Boubion, 1991).

Despite its top-ranking income, Santa Clara County ranks 16th out of 58 counties in percentage of children living in extreme poverty. Ninety thousand people in

Santa Clara County have incomes below the poverty level. Of these, some 65,000 households receive income assistance. In addition, housing costs increased twice as quickly as the minimum wage in nearly every county in California. About four-fifths of poor children did not visit a dentist last year, largely because of the lack of dentists who accept Medi-Cal (Children Now, 1990).

According to the Santa Clara Office of Education, there were over 300,000 women in Santa Clara County's work force in 1986, many representing the fastest growing type of household in America, that of the single-parent family. Ninety-three thousand children in the county between the ages of 5 and 14 have mothers in the work force. These figures suggest that many children are without adult supervision for many hours each day. Many professionals believe that "latchkey" children are self-carers who have lower academic achievement, experience more social problems, and often must deal with fear, loneliness, and boredom. Many children are left alone out of necessity since child care is the fourth highest expense for families after shelter, food, and taxes. Many Santa Clara County mothers cannot afford this expense (Santa Clara Office of Education, 1986).

Policy Analysis for California Education (1989) suggested that family conditions have a major impact on children's emotional well-being and on their scholastic and social success. Two factors emerge from the data as significant influences on a child's well-being: family structure and teenage parenthood. Major causes of change in the family structure are an increase in divorce and a rise in the number of births to single mothers. Divorce rates have doubled since 1960. One-third of the children in California will experience parental divorce before age 16. Divorce is often attended by economic and psychological pressures that diminish the parent's supervision of children, and may thus contribute to school failure, drug and alcohol abuse, and early sexual activity. Available evidence indicates that teenage parenthood is often detrimental to the parents and to their children. And there is evidence that divorce increases the risk that a child will experience problems in academic, emotional, and social development (PACE, 1989).

> It's not better teachers, texts or curricula that our children need most; it's better childhoods. We will never see lasting school reform until we see parent reform. (Samuel Sava, Executive Director, National Association of Elementary School Principals, Wall Street Journal, July 31, 1990, p. B-1)

Problem statement. There is ample evidence to indicate that many children in our society are at risk due to the lack of positive parenting. Divorce, poverty, violence, homelessness, welfare dependency, child abuse, and drug and alcohol abuse are all on the increase. The traditional "family" in our society is disintegrating at an alarming rate (PACE, 1989).

The goal of this thesis is to focus attention on the plight of the children in these circumstances, and to suggest positive parenting methods which could improve the results we now observe in statistics. Parents need training so that negative patterns of parenting, learned in a dysfunctional home, are not repeated with their children.

Most experts in the field of child education feel that there must first be a change in the methods of child-rearing in order for the statistics on children in America to change (Bradshaw, 1988; Satir, 1988; Hart, 1987).

Besides the families themselves, communities also suffer the effects of poor parenting. Crime, drug and alcohol abuse, violence, runaways, school dropouts, and low academic achievement test scores are on the increase. Communities are often ranked on the basis of test scores of the schools, but most communities are

making no particular effort to address a major source of the problem: a family system in need.

The government is directly affected by parenting that has failed. Welfare dependency, crime, drug and alcohol abuse, prison overpopulation, and health care for families in need drain the budgets of local, state, and federal institutions.

Many workers in industry have needed retraining in basic social and academic skills due to lack of parental involvement in developing these skills in the home. Corporations are now spending billions of dollars for remedial education programs in order to make up for this deficit.

The realm of education has also been affected. Samuel Sava, Executive Director of the National Association of Elementary School Principals, spoke to this issue in these words:

> Parental involvement in education has been a victim of changes in American family life. Since 1965, the divorce rate, the ratio of children living in single-parent families and the proportion of married mothers of young children working outside the home have all doubled. As a result, parents have less time and energy to devote to their children's education. (Bacon, 1990)

School teachers and administrators are experiencing burnout trying to cope with the increasing numbers of children who come to school ill-equipped to

deal with the challenges of learning. The emotional and physical needs of these students are so paramount that there is little energy or motivation for academics.

The level of child abuse statistics is one of the greatest evidences of the need for improved parenting skills according to Phyllis Jenkins, Licensed Marriage, Family, Child therapist. She contends that if a child has had a violent upbringing, there will be a strong possibility that he will adapt to his children in the same way (P. Jenkins, personal communication, September 1991).

Family violence is one of the major reasons why children run away from home, according to Covenant House (1991), an organization that works with runaway teens. Statistics, however, cannot measure the painful emotional scars that remain long after the abuse.

Dr. Robert Firestone, in his book Compassionate Child Rearing (1990), points out that often parental behavior contradicts generally acceptable definitions of love. He notes that during family interactions observed in everyday situations, some parents behave in ways which are largely detrimental to their offspring. These inappropriate responses range in intensity from minor irritability and disrespect to sadism and

brutality.

Despite widespread recognition that preventive programs are the most cost-efficient, little is currently being done to address the needs of families for improved parenting training. Rather, our current priorities deal with the results of the disintegrating family as revealed in statistics.

Purpose statement. The purpose of this research is to identify the skills that parents need for successful parenting, and to develop a workshop using psychodramatic techniques to teach these skills.

The content of this workshop is based on information from a review of literature in the field on the current status of children in America. Also, a review of literature in the field of parenting will be conducted to determine the most commonly identified attitudes, behaviors, and skills that help parents to guide their children to high levels of self-esteem and productive living.

Psychodrama has been chosen as the process for teaching these skills. Chapter III presents information on the history, techniques, and principles of psychodrama.

Psychodrama allows participants to role play

actual situations in their lives, and to try out alternative behaviors. Warm-up activities prepare participants to become actively involved. The protagonist in role playing allows participants to share in the role enacted.

Based on the literature review and psychodramatic principles and techniques, a four-day workshop will be developed to teach selected parenting skills. The workshop will involve issues which strongly affect the outcome of parenting. These issues are: (a) being a conscious, aware parent so that negative parenting from childhood is not repeated, (b) developing a child's self-esteem, which often depends on the level of the parent's self-esteem, (c) the importance of family relationships, and how to strengthen these bonds, and (d) the parent as executive of the family in setting goals for daily and long-term family planning. Parental training is founded on the belief that families will be successful and increase their strength, longevity, and capabilities if they are managed well (Procaccini & Kiefaber, 1985).

The fifth chapter will consists of a summary of the content in the previous chapters, conclusions reached as a result of the literature review, and recommendations made by the writer as a result of

research findings.

Research questions.

1. What are the factors that indicate a child will likely be "at risk" in our society?

2. What do experts in child rearing agree on as necessary parenting skills for raising children with high self-esteem?

3. Can psychodrama be an effective method in teaching these skills?

Assumptions. In conducting this research, the researcher assumed the following:

1. Parents desire to have a successful family system.

2. If parent training were time, energy, and cost-efficient, parents would participate in a training program.

3. Experts in child rearing have identified the essential skills needed in training parents to raise happy, healthy, productive children.

4. Parent training can be an effective tool in changing parent's attitudes and actions toward their children.

Statement of significance. Many things contribute to a child's growth and development, including peer pressure and the influence of the media, but the family has the greatest influence of all. Unfortunately, it often has a negative impact due to one or more of the following reasons:

1. Single parent, unwed parent, or teenage parent situations. Most are operating on emotional overload and lack many of the advantages of a two-parent home.

2. Physical, sexual, psychological, or substance abuse in the home.

3. Economic deprivation.

4. Lack of supervision of children and quality time.

5. Lack of support with school work.

6. Lack of effective, character-producing parenting skills.

7. Excessive and unmonitored television watching.

8. Divorce.

Being an effective parent is one of the most rewarding tasks in life, and it is also one of the most challenging. Most parents want to relate more effectively to their children. "Parenthood is one of the easiest jobs to get, but one of the most difficult to perform," one father shared at a parent training

workshop (Procaccine & Kiefaber, 1985, p. 12).

The results of inadequate and neglectful parenting and family instability have been devastating to many children. Dr. Louise Hart, in her book The Winning Family (1987), points out that children are inheriting a complex, challenging world and need to be adequately prepared for it.

This thesis suggests that the best way to help children is to help the parents. The home is the first teacher, and the failure of many children to be successful and productive in life indicates a problem in the family system.

Parenting affects every person. It is a topic of interest which has broad appeal. There is a teaching aspect that underlies every adult-child interaction. Parents need to be taught how to be aware of what they are teaching by their attitudes, words, and actions. They also need to be aware of what they are failing to teach.

Counselors also need to be aware of the present condition of children in America. This thesis will bring into focus the opinions of experts in parenting and their suggestions for effective child-rearing.

In the author's research, no literature could be found on the use of psychodrama to teach parenting

skills. It is the researcher's belief that psychodrama is an effective form of therapy for group work. Counselors interested in developing programs for parents will find these techniques helpful in getting parents actively involved in improving their parenting skills.

Parents share common goals and challenges. Role playing closely resembles real-life situations. A four-day workshop could lead to a support group for parents and continued psychodrama meetings. Many parents have confided to the author that small group parenting meetings led by a therapist transformed their parenting style.

Many children are in loving, caring, supportive families. Their parents have succeeded where others have failed. But for millions of others, help is needed.

Margaret Mead declared, "The solution of adult problems tomorrow depends upon the way our children grow up today. There is no greater insight into the future than recognizing that when we save our children, we save ourselves" (Geiger, 1991, p. 2).

The way children are raised largely determines how they will function as adults and parents, and their behavior will determine the future of our planet.

Anything that can be provided to parents to help them in their crucial task of rearing their children can be a significant contribution to the welfare of our country.

B. Methodology

The type of research conducted was descriptive and developmental. Through a review of literature, the author described the state of America's children and parenting today. Based on the literature findings, the author developed a training workshop to be used to help parents develop positive parenting skills. The process incorporated psychodramatic techniques.

Data collection. Information was obtained for the following categories: (a) the current state of children and parenting in the United States, California, and Santa Clara County, (b) positive parenting skills as outlined in books on parenting, and (c) techniques and principles of psychodrama.

II. THE IMPORTANCE OF PARENT TRAINING

Mrs. Mary Ross, church leader, commented succinctly on what children need: "Our children need a faith to live by, a self to live with, and a work fit to live for" (Children's Defense Fund, 1989, p. ix).

A U.S. Department of Health and Human Services Report stated:

> Some parents feed their children well, provide them with good physical surroundings, give them appropriate clothes and the advantages they can afford, and yet fail to nurture them in the most important way: by helping them to develop self-esteem and the knowledge they are wanted, loved and appreciated. Many parents are insensitive to the fact that the most basic need of the child is not being met nor do the parents recognize the impact of their behavior on the emotional health of the child. (U.S. Department of Health and Human Services, 1985, p. 1)

What is the best way to help children? In an experiment in 1972, Love, Kaswan, and Bugental compared the effectiveness of three interventions with 91 elementary school children who had emotional and behavioral disorders and who came from different socioeconomic levels. One group of children received direct child therapy. The parents of another group of children received counseling which was psychoanalytically oriented. An intervention called

information feedback was used with the third group and the information shared with parents and teachers for discussion and decision-making regarding the child. As stated by the researchers, "the data clearly indicates that interventions which focused on parents are more effective in improving children's school performance than is time-limited psychotherapy for the child. The comparative weakness of the effect of child therapy indicated that parents rather than therapists are the most important source of attention" (Buscaglia, 1975, p. 69).

Taylor and Hoedt (1974) compared the effect of direct intervention by counseling children to the effects of indirect intervention by counseling parents and teachers. After a 10-week period, results indicated that counseling with significant adults such as parents and teachers was more effective in reducing behavior problems than directly working with the children (Buscaglia, 1975).

Reynold Bean, child psychologist and author, repeatedly states in talks to parents and teachers that children are not the ones who need counseling. He feels parents need the counseling in order to know the best way to handle their child (R. Bean, personal communication, April 1981).

A study by Burton White (1987) shows that in bringing up healthy, creative, and self-assured youngsters, the amount of time and money spent by parents is not the important thing. What matters is how the parents themselves are in life. Most significant in successful parenting is that parents feel good about their own lives, that they serve as resources for their children, and that they give them the emotional space necessary to become what they may be. That parents feel good about their own lives is number one in significance (Brown, 1986).

Ackerman (1978) contends that parents are not prepared for their role by courses in school, seminars in college, or educational television programs. He noted:

> They are tossed into the stormy waters of parenthood and told to sink or swim. Frequently they resort to the models set by their own parents, even though they recognize that they were not, as youngsters, satisfied by their parenting techniques. Usually they act by reflex and out of desperation. And so they revert back to the only methods they know, those of their own parents. The victim in this directionless parenting is, of course, the child. (p. 37)

Dr. Robert Firestone, author of Compassionate Child Raising (1990), observed:

> The paradox is that at the very moment parents want what is best for their children, they unwittingly create relationships that

> disrupt their well-being. The parenting they got as infants and children is the indelible lesson that will not be easily erased. The seeds that were planted in their own early years of development may lie dormant over a long period of time. When they have children, they discover emotions that disturb, feelings that threaten, and actions that they do not recognize as coming from the person they thought they were. This dark or "shadow" side which they have kept a secret from themselves, is no secret to their children. (p. 45)

Dr. Susan Forward, in her book, Toxic Parents (1989), calls the family

> . . . a complex network of love, jealousy, pride, anxiety, joy, guilt—a constant ebb and flow of the full range of human emotions. The family system constitutes a child's entire reality when he is young. A child makes a decision about who he is and how he is supposed to interact with others based on how the family system taught him to see the world. (p. 165)

Judith Brown, author of I Only Want What's Best for You (1986), asserts that many parents are putting their emotional and psychological interest before those of their children. Parent's emotional needs can easily eclipse their children's needs. The dependent child does what seems necessary to avoid losing mother and father. Brown paraphrased Laurens Van de Post in Jung and the Story of Our Times (1986) this way:

> Parents who are unwilling to confront themselves, their inner wishes and needs, live behind a mask of distortion. The most common self-deception of parents is that what they do in relation to their children,

> regardless of how self-gratifying it may be, is basically for their children. Instead of parenting to provide what the child needs, they groom the child to provide what they, the parents, need. (p. 64)

Dr. Firestone dedicated his book, Compassionate Child Rearing (1990), to Parents: The Lost Children. It became obvious to him in working with parents that they extend their self-critical thoughts and negative emotions onto their children and are overly critical of these projected qualities and traits in their youngsters. This process often leads to harsh or rejecting treatment that seriously undermines the self-esteem of their offspring. In the process of rejection, the child is basically used as a waste receptacle and dumping ground. The parents disown weaknesses and unpleasant characteristics in themselves and perceive them instead in the child. As a result of parental projections, many children become imprisoned for life in a narrow, restrictive labeling system that formed their identity within the family. As adults, they feel guilty to move away from these definitions even though they may be negative or degrading (Firestone, 1990).

Training in becoming a conscious, aware parent is of highest importance to child-rearing experts. Parents who feel good about themselves have no need to

work out their problems and ambitions on their youngsters. They can separate children's fears and frustrations from their own (Brown, 1986).

For most parents, the most meaningful connection in their lives is their children, and their satisfactions come in moments of loving and caring. Firestone (1990) found that training will help parents become the kind of parents they have always said they would like to be. He said:

> Parents need direction for action—a map that tells them how to prevent unhealthy behaviors in their children. Children who see parents who have developed flexible behaviors for coping with life, who accept responsibility for their own choices, who choose to see what is positive in themselves, their children and their life, are more likely to have children who develop these same strengths which provide more control of the world. Children believe what they see more reliably than what parents tell them. Parents teach most of what children learn through modeling a behavior. (p. 98)

Vincent Fontana, in his book Somewhere a Child is Crying (1988), is quoted by Dr. Firestone (1990) as saying:

> What we do for today's parents has a great bearing on how today's children will live out their lives. But it is only in understanding themselves that parents can really change the attitudes and feelings they have covertly and overtly toward their children. (p. 130)

Virginia Satir, outstanding family therapist and author of New Peoplemaking (1988), comments:

> Human behavior largely represents what has been taught, learned and modeled. My basic message has been and is that a strong link exists between life in the family and the kinds of adults that children become. Since individuals make up society, it is very important that we develop the strongest and most congruent people possible. It starts in the family. In time, having congruent people at the helm will change the character of our society. (p. 23)

In the August 25, 1991 issue of Parade magazine in a column entitled "Fresh Voices," teenagers listed their most unfavorite lines of parents:

> "Who said that life was fair?"
> "Do you want a smack?"
> "You don't know how lucky you are."
> "I don't want to hear it."
> "This hurts me worse than it hurts you."

Fresh voices. Old tapes. Many parents are still unconsciously using the negative parenting methods and words of their parents. Tradition is transmitted unquestioningly, repeating the patterns of the past, however inappropriate. The reaction of the teenagers to these messages demonstrate their ineffectiveness.

Deborah Phillips, author of How To Give a Child a Great Self-Image (1989), suggested parents need parenting skills and training to be effective. Her reasons are summarized below.

1. Dysfunctional homes are the norm rather than the exception and parents repeat what they learned in their homes.

2. The influence of television, movies, and

current lifestyles offer a constant role model for children to follow. Parents need to realize they are leaders and their responsibility is to guide their child to a healthy lifestyle.

3. Parenting can be a loving and enjoyable experience. If a parent does not find it so, they need to look for new skills, new methods, and new strategies so that they will be effective in raising their children.

4. Parents need parent training for the future of our country and our world.

Dr. Louise Hart, author of The Winning Family (1987), often asks parents in her workshops how many knew while growing up that they were loved by their parents. Many hands go up. When asked how many felt loved, fewer hands go up. Dr. Hart commented that many parents are stingy with words of love.

Ackerman (1978) stresses the necessity for parents to show love in these words:

> Allow love and affection in your home. How strange that sounds! Do our children know that our homes contain the emotional and physical warmth that comes from love and affection? So many ways are open to us to permit youngsters to feel the flow of mutual affection permeating the environment. A bedtime hug, an arm around the shoulder as you walk, an unexpected smile, holding your daughter's hand, a surprise gift, working on a project with them, a touch during a meaningful moment. These are subtle expressions of love and affection. Too often we are embarrassed to touch, hug, kiss. How often children want that open display of our devotion. If we want our children to believe in the importance of love in a relationship,

give them a positive example. (p. 178)

Firestone (1989) felt that very often parents assume their inner thoughts and feelings about loving their children are comparable with outward expressions of warmth and tenderness and think their children can read their minds and somehow know they are loved. He said, "These mothers and fathers imagine that they care deeply while in fact they may have very few personal interactions with their children" (p. 54).

In a survey (Szalai, 1977), it was found that the average parent spends only 5.4 minutes a day talking with his/her child. Time spent nagging, scolding, directing, and punishing was not counted in the amount of time (Firestone, 1989).

Phillips (1989) noted that if criticism is used to change child behavior, the child has been hearing put-downs rather than instructions. This has almost certainly damaged his/her self-image. She had parents keep check of how often they criticized their children. The answers ranged from 20 to 50 to 100 times a day. She feels that even the best parents criticize too much. According to one researcher, 87% of what teachers in the classroom tell children is negative. Add to this the criticism children receive from peers, and it is little wonder that children and adults suffer

from low self-esteem. Dr. Phillips tells parents that criticizing a child less often is a first step toward improving his/her self-image. She has all the parents she works with give their child at least four compliments a day.

Bluestein & Collins (1987) assert that a child who can find nothing positive about him/herself is going to have difficulty building confidence, dealing with defeat or failure, making the best out of a bad situation, focusing on positive solutions instead of complaining about the negative, or sharing him/herself in positive, caring relationships.

According to Hart (1987), self-esteem is the greatest gift a parent can give a child. But since most parents do not have good self-esteem, they cannot teach something they have not learned themselves. Parents need to learn along with their children how to raise their self-esteem.

Virginia Satir, author of New Peoplemaking (1988), declared: "As a therapist I found that the foundation for releasing symptoms and the emergence of health was the development of individual self-worth. I, as well as others, have demonstrated this concept over and over again" (p. 55).

Phillips (1989) suggested that putting an improved

program of parenting into action takes less time than:

- worrying about a child's problems
- talking about a child's problems
- trying to get a child to change and not succeeding
- being locked in unproductive communication
- fretting about shortcomings as a parent

Dr. Paul Pearsall (1990) found, in his studies of families at his Problems of Daily Living at Sinai Hospital in Detroit, that even the most disturbed families had powerful healing potential, enormous recuperative resources, and that in spite of continuing social pressure against "us" in favor of "me," the family continued to be the spiritual center for every one of his patients. He found that persons who enhanced and protected their dependence on family and saw events from the perspective of connection, rather than isolation, were healthier in all respects than those who spent their emotional energy "breaking away" to choose self-fulfillment. Dr. Pearsall stated: "Intense family feelings are the internal signals of a strong need to stay connected with our family and with everyone forever" (p. 49).

Satir (1988) commented that many families are started by adults who are in the position of having to teach their children what they have not learned themselves. She believed that wise parents become

students and learn along with their children.

Ira Gordon (1977), former Director of Follow Through in Richmond, Virginia schools, pointed out three central themes are common to parenting programs: (a) The home is important and basic for human development, (b) parents need help in creating the most effective home environment for that development, and (c) the early years of life are most important for lifelong development.

According to Procaccine and Keifaber (1985), parents are, in fact, executives. They administer a complex human organization. Like leaders of other organizations, they can perform their roles effectively or they can perform them poorly. While there are some born leaders, most parents have to develop leadership skills through training and practice. This can change child rearing from a frustrating battleground to a journey of challenging, joyous experience.

Pearsall (1990) alleged that if we define a healthy, happy family as one with no problems, then there are no happy families in the world. It is the purpose of families to help members learn through the sometimes bitter cruelty of life.

Pat Belvel, local motivational speaker and former teacher, works with parents and teachers in Santa Clara

Valley teaching them ways to bring out the best in their children. Her message to them is:

> First, parents need an awareness of their need for improved parenting.
>
> Second, they need a picture of correct parenting, a role model to refer to.
>
> Third, they need to commit to a new parenting style.
>
> Fourth, they need to keep the commitment. But she found they seldom do without a support group. She encourages all parents who want to change their parenting style to join a support group. (Personal communication, July 1991)

Phillips (1989) contends that if a parent feels part of the problem, training can help him/her become part of the solution. When parents find positive and growth-promoting methods for teaching responsible behavior, the eventual resulting adult relationship with their children can be one of rewarding mutual respect and shared affection. Phillips also points out: "To get off 'automatic' and truly to engage requires energy and investment of time to avoid the habitual and the unproductive. The splendid payoff is an atmosphere in which everyone in the family can bloom" (p. 52).

Parenting can be a loving and enjoyable experience. If a parent does not find it so, he/she needs to look for new skills, new attitudes, and new

strategies that will be effective in raising his/her children. As a tennis pro once said, "If your game is not working, change it" (Phillips, 1989, p. 53).

III. ORIGIN, TECHNIQUES, AND PRINCIPLES OF PSYCHODRAMA

Psychodrama is a form of psychotherapy which was devised by Jacob Levy Moreno in the 1920s and 1930s. He was impressed by the way in which children were able to play out stories and express quite deep emotions when he led them in impromptu activity groups. Moreno opened the Theater of Spontaneity in Vienna in 1921. Those who participated in the theater were not professional actors, nor did they use scripts. Instead, they acted out the events reported in the daily newspaper or topics suggested by members of the audience. After an event or topic was acted out, the actors and audience were invited to comment on their experiences during the performance. Moreno found that both the actors and those in the audience experienced a catharsis or release of pent-up feelings as a result of being in the play or observing the play. As a result of this experiment, Moreno began to develop specialized therapeutic techniques that became the foundation for psychodrama (Langley, 1983; Landy, 1986; J. L. Moreno, 1950).

Psychodrama is designed to help people express their feelings in a spontaneous and dramatic way through the use of role playing. Although it is

interpersonally oriented, psychodrama is intended to help people explore intrapersonal aspects of their lives (Fenell & Weinhold, 1989; Langley, 1983).

The ancient Greeks used the drama as a ritual for the purpose of evoking a group catharsis. The drama, in this sense, had healing powers in that it clarified the unexpressed experience and helped the individual to accept more fully the various facets of the personality (Blatner, 1973).

With the development of systems of worship and ritual early in history, the drama of everyday life began to take on symbolic forms and serve specific purposes. To ensure a good harvest, a productive hunt, or a victorious battle, celebrants would role play the elements, animals, gods, enemies. Through drama, they would symbolize their hopes for a good crop, or a victorious battle, and their fears of hunger and defeat. With the advent of feudal society, drama entered the institutions. The church was the first to apply drama to education. Through the dramatization of the resurrection of Christ, many illiterate parishioners learned of the story of Easter and thus participated more fully in the symbolic events of the Mass (Langley, 1983).

The metaphor of the world as a stage and self as

performer has been used widely by poets, playwrights, priests, philosophers, and politicians for centuries, and, most recently, social scientists. For the sociologist Erving Goffman, the self is performed and reformed in everyday life. For the philosopher, Martin Buber, human interaction is characterized by dialogue (Landy, 1986).

Historically, the psychodrama grew out of the principle of play. Drama and play are largely seen as synonymous, both referring to a spontaneous process of enactment involving an imaginative projection of the self into a character or objects (J. L. Moreno, 1950).

For some years, Richard Courtney (1983) researched the social and behavioral sciences, philosophy, and the performing arts in order to uncover the theoretical dimensions of learning through drama. He discovered that drama is a central process in human existence, extending not only to learning, but also to playing, working, thinking, and to healing. Drama is a profound means of both experiencing and reflecting upon experiences. Self is not visible. It only takes a visible form through a role. The self is what a person is, the role is what a person does (Landy, 1986).

Psychodrama is the use of drama as a therapeutic tool. It is not an acquired skill which people can or

cannot do, but a medium in which each person can participate at his own level. It is an extension of the natural play that we all knew as children that gives people the means to become more creative and spontaneous beings. For the client, there is no standard of performance in the theatrical sense. The therapy is in the doing (Langley, 1983).

Blatner (1973) defined psychodrama as "a method of psychotherapy in which patients enact the relevant events in their lives instead of simply talking about them" (p. 4).

The psychodrama experience is viewed as best served by spontaneous improvisational enactment rather than scripted material to an audience. J. L. Moreno observed that in life, we have a script and a role to which we adhere, but psychodrama gives us an opportunity to try out new scripts and find a new role or a new approach to an old one. Psychodrama takes experiences, situations, conflicts, and looks at them in detail to explore alternative ways of dealing with them and possible outcomes. The client may have a value idea about his behavior, but the insight gained through drama can help him to see more clearly (Langley, 1983; Blatner, 1988).

Psychodrama views man as essentially dramatic and

spontaneous in nature, as able to learn how to live better with himself, within his family and community through a process of role playing. Landy (1986) states: "Clients are treated through drama because through their play and past dramatization they have created a dysfunctional image of themselves in the world. In psychodrama they re-create the image so that it can be reviewed, allowing a more functional self" (p. 73).

Psychodrama is not an "acting" cure as an alternative to a "talking" cure. The idea is not that the subjects act out with one another everything on their minds—off guard, in a limitless exhibitionism as if this sort of activity could produce results. Psychodrama tries with the cooperation of the client to transfer the mind "outside" of the individual and objectify it. Acting from within, or acting out, is a necessary phase in the progress of therapy (J. L. Moreno, 1964; Blatner, 1973).

In psychodrama, process is more important than content, even though content is reconstructed. "How did this happen to you, show me?" is the focus rather than "What happened to you, tell me?" Clients frequently repress or forget what happened, both in and outside of therapy, but they rarely forget how they

experienced it and how this experience affected them. With the flow of the process, the contents emerge (Z. Moreno, 1989).

Like Freud, J. L. Moreno (1964) developed a system for analyzing human behavior and treating mental illness. The opening of the first therapeutic theater signaled a revolution in the vehicle, form, and concept of treatment. The couch was transformed into a stage; Freud's free association was replaced by spontaneity in psychodramatic production and audience participation; the unconscious was seen in the warming-up process; and transference in the tele (a bonding and empathy which takes place between two or more people).

J. L. Moreno (1954) had this to say about psychodrama:

> After the study of heredity, of anatomy, of physiology, of internal medicine, of histology, of neurology, after you have been psychoanalyzed and even after you have had your lobotomy, you must enter the process of living itself, a world full of unknown opportunities and uncertainties: a world ever changing, filled with unknown objects and people. After you have acquired all the knowledge, your learnings need a finishing touch. You still have to learn how to live. This is what psychodrama and its allied methods and techniques propose to do for people: to provide them the science and skills of life, a "life practice." (p. 49)

According to J. L. Moreno (1964), the first psychodramatic law is this: "Put yourself in the place

of a victim of injustice and share his hurt. Reverse the role with him" (p. 124). It was this spirit of compassion and caring that motivated J. L. Moreno and made his work in psychodrama so successful.

As a young prophet, he grew a beard which, in time, took the form ascribed to Christ. He wore a dark green mantle which fell almost to his ankles. Everyone began to identify him by his "prophet's mantle." He wore it summer and winter. He was a handsome, charismatic young man with intense blue eyes. People felt he could read what was in their minds (J. Moreno, 1989).

J. L. Moreno was born May 18, 1889, in Bucharest, Romania, the oldest of six children. He was descended from a line of Sephardic Jews. Sephardic Jews were frequently subject to vicious attacks and had as their greatest single spiritual preoccupation the problem of the messiah. Mysticism was an everyday part of their rich folklife. The messiah role was, therefore, intimately familiar to the young Moreno (J. Moreno, 1989).

When Moreno was six years old, the family moved from Bucharest to Vienna. As a young man, he began asking questions of self and life. "Who am I?" He began extensive and feverish reading of religious,

philosophical, and aesthetic literature. This set the internal, psychic scene for the decisive period to come (J. Moreno, 1989).

J. L. Moreno says of this period:

> The psychodrama of my life preceded psychodrama as a method. I was the first patient of psychodramatic therapy, protagonist and director in one. With the aid of unwitting auxiliary egos, the people around me, I developed a surplus reality, a new world which the actual culture did not, could not, provide. From such experiences and from my success with them came the vitality and drive to apply such techniques to other people. I also realized I had developed a powerful vehicle for a cultural revolution. I was challenged because, not only did I have to inspire myself to play my part, but I had to inspire the people around me to play with me. At times, it appeared to me as if I was able to convince the grass to be green, the sky to be blue, and the trees to be as tall as I wanted them to be. The greater the barriers that I was able to overcome, the more my confidence grew that I could conquer new barriers. I lived in a state of constant suspense (J. Moreno, 1989, p. 132).

Even when he was quite young, people in trouble turned to him. But he had the conviction that a single individual had no authority, that he must become the voice of a group. Therefore, he went out to find friends, followers, good people. He decided to begin his work with children. He would go to a local park where children played while their mothers and fathers were at work. Instead of just talking to the children,

he began to tell them fairy tales. In order to maintain the wonder of the children and satisfy his own creative ego, he never told the fairy tale in the same way twice. He was aroused to greater creativity each day by the pleas of the children (J. Moreno, 1970).

In 1909, he began staging written plays with children. But he noticed that the children soon began to repeat or "conserve" certain actions and attitudes and were losing their spontaneity. He developed the completely original practice of "letting them play spontaneously" their own problems in the Vienna Meadow Garden. In 1911, Moreno created a children's theater for spontaneity where the first recorded psychodramatic sessions were produced (J. Moreno, 1964).

While in medical school, he began to shift his interest from children to adults. Around 1911, he formulated a plan of how the problem of prostitution could be helped. This led to the forming of self-help groups, initiated and run by the girls themselves. The method of not trying to reform them, but to use the dynamic factors operating in the group toward the realization of their own goals proved highly beneficial (Blatner, 1988).

In 1921, he organized a troupe of actors (including Peter Lorre, who was later to become famous

in the movies) and opened an impromptu theater called Theater of Spontaneity. During these years, he also had a general medical practice in a suburb of Vienna (Blatner, 1988).

In 1925, Austria was in chaos after the war, and J. L. Moreno began to think of emigrating. He chose the United States because a company in America agreed to sponsor him. He was, among other things, an inventor. He invented a wire recorder, a precursor to today's tape recorder.

Over the next 20 years, J. L. Moreno produced his most innovative work. Working mainly in New York, he developed psychodrama and group psychotherapy; wrote a number of books and articles; opened his own sanitarium in Beacon, about 60 miles north of New York City; published two professional journals; organized the first professional association of group psychotherapists; and offered open psychodrama sessions in New York City that were a showcase where many professionals witnessed psychodynamic methods other than traditional psychoanalytic approaches. Maslow, Berne, and Will Schultz have all acknowledged Moreno's role as the source of many of the most innovative techniques in modern psychology. He had a devotion to the vision of a healthier world. Many years of

experience with individuals and groups convinced him of the value of the methods he had developed. He was considered by those who knew him to be one of the most dynamic and courageous pioneers in the history of psychiatry (Blatner, 1988).

J. L. Moreno once remarked: "Our relationship to God may be simply this—he needs a lot of helpers to put his creation over" (Blatner, 1988, p. 72). Many believe the essence of J. L. Moreno's life story was his faith in the potential of every person. In going down this path and being one of God's helpers, he undertook his own psychodrama (J. Moreno, 1989).

Psychodrama, as we know it today, did not come into being overnight. The structure evolved as J. L. Moreno became aware of needs and of new ways of working. Training in psychodrama is not so much a learning of technique, but a continual exposure to the structure of role playing until it is absorbed and becomes a part of one's way of thinking. The time that it takes for this to happen varies with the individual, but it cannot happen quickly as there is much to experience and assimilate. That is why adequate training is imperative. Until the structure has become absorbed, it cannot be used to maximum effect (Langley, 1983).

Dorothy Langley (1983) who has worked in drama therapy in England made this comment about psychodrama:

> As one trains in psychodrama and experiences the power of it repeatedly, a trust of this method develops. Both staff in training and clients in groups feel this. They learn to trust the therapist and also the process being used. Initially the anxieties of both staff and clients seem to center around "What will happen if I let go of my emotions?" I never cease to wonder at the power of psychodrama and the mind that created it. All the safeguards one needs are there within the structure if you look for them (p. 113).

There are three phases to psychodrama. First, the warm-up in which the group prepares for action and a protagonist is selected. Second, is the action phase, when the protagonist works through a series of scenes from the periphery of the problem to the heart of the matter. Finally, comes the sharing when all group members share from their own experience and feelings with the protagonist (Langley, 1983; Blatner, 1973).

J. L. Moreno defines psychodrama as the science which explores "the truth" by dramatic methods. Psychodrama as an action method makes available to people a setting in which they can examine relationships in the here and now, re-examine those past relationships which they consider relevant in the present, and experiment with possible changes for the future. In providing the individual with an

opportunity to examine his social atom, psychodrama serves as preventive psychiatry. Each increase in the ability to consider alternative courses of action and choose between them tends to liberate the individual from limitations on his spontaneity (Haskell, 1975).

The technique of psychodrama is generally a series of role-playing situations based upon the interaction between four elements: a director who is the therapist; a protagonist who is the client; auxiliary egos who are significant others in the client's life; and doubles who are the inner voices of the protagonist. Through interaction of these players, the protagonist explores a problem in life in a group setting. The fifth important element to the psychodrama is the group or audience members who participate in the psychodrama through an identification with the protagonist's dilemma and a sharing of their own experience during the closure (Landy, 1986).

Throughout the history of psychodrama, the techniques have been used with various types of clients—children and elders, the psychotic, neurotic, mentally retarded, physically disabled, and the generally healthy (Landy, 1986). It has proven effective with all these groups.

There are between 200 and 300 psychodramatic techniques which have been developed. Many can be traced back to the rituals and customs of ancient culture and are found in the classic writings of world literature. J. L. Moreno rediscovered and adapted them to psychotherapeutic objectives. The number of applications of the psychodramatic method is probably unlimited, although the core of the method remains unchanged (Z. Moreno, 1969).

The structure of warm-up, action, and closure has marked the practice of psychodrama since its inception in the 1900s. As psychodrama primarily involves a protagonist playing the role of himself in relation to significant others in his life, the warm-up experience prepares him to engage a part of himself that needs further exploration (Landy, 1986).

According to Adam Blatner (1973), the psychodramatic warm-up is geared primarily to the development of spontaneity within all of the participants. Blatner describes the necessary conditions for spontaneity as follows:

> The most important issue in warming up is the establishment of a context which fosters spontaneity. The necessary conditions for spontaneous behavior include (1) a sense of trust and safety, (2) norms which allow for the inclusion of nonrational and intuitive dimensions, (3) some feeling of tentative

> distance, which is one element of "playfulness", and (4) a movement toward risk-taking and exploration into novelty. (p. 67)

The importance of the warm-up in developing the goals and interests of a group and maintaining a high degree of involvement cannot be overestimated according to Martin Haskell (1975).

Martin Haskell (1975) defines a psychodramatic group in this way:

> Each member of the group comes to it for what is essentially a private purpose, to get help in solving his own problems, to arrive at a better understanding of his relationships, and to experiment with modifications of his behavior. Group goals, if any, are subordinated to individual goals. A warming-up process is required to get the disparate individuals who come to a psychodrama session to develop some group goals and to become involved in the problems of each other. As members of the group begin to take an interest in relationship problems similar to their own, the synthetic group may come to resemble a natural group. It is in the course of the warming-up process that the awareness of the relationship problems of others in the group begins. (p. 167)

Martin Haskell (1975) liked to begin warm-ups with a 10-minute talk. He felt the choice of the protagonist and the relationship explored were influenced by what the director emphasized in the course of warm-up. He also felt the director should extend himself and shake hands with each member at the first meeting of an ongoing group.

During or immediately after the warm-up, the choice of a protagonist will be made. Some directors like to choose the protagonist based on the following factors:

1. The protagonist will have warmed up to his feelings.
2. The protagonist will have reached a state of spontaneity.
3. The protagonist has identified an issue that encapsulates larger group issues.
4. There will be a workable sense of tele between the director and the protagonist. (Blatner, 1973, pp. 117-118)

Following the establishment of a clear dramatic focus, the protagonist will begin to identify others who will assume complimentary roles in the psychodrama, the auxiliary egos (Landy, 1986; J. L. Moreno, 1963).

There are several types of auxiliary egos. The auxiliary egos can represent a significant other such as spouse, parent, sibling, child, or intimate friend. The auxiliary ego can also be a representative of a social group, such as rich, poor, blacks, whites, women, men rather than an individual. The auxiliary ego can also be abstract, such as archetypical or mythological. The main purpose of the auxiliary ego is to provide a means of dramatizing the protagonist's dilemma (Landy, 1986).

As well as challenging the protagonist and helping him arrive at a point of balance, the auxiliary plays a supporting role. He needs to balance provocative actions with gestures of support to strengthen the protagonist and the nurturing functions of the groups (Langley, 1983; Z. Moreno, 1954).

A maxim employed by many psychodramatic directors is: When in trouble, reverse roles. The role reversal provides breathing space. The protagonist who is too closely identified with his role takes on the role of the other and becomes an observer of himself. A protagonist too far removed from the role of another person can become more of an actor as he takes on the auxiliary role. The protagonist should be given the opportunity to play the role of each person with whom he interacts on the stage (Haskell, 1975).

The double is the most direct extension of the protagonist. The double is a very powerful psychodramatic figure and represents the inner, unexpressed thoughts and feelings of the protagonist. For the overly cautious person, the double can provide deeper connection to feelings and pave the way toward risk-taking. For the overly impulsive, the double can provide a safe means of diffusing overwhelming feelings (Landy, 1986; Haskell, 1975).

The primary function of the double is to help the protagonist focus on his feelings and express them directly through words and movements. As the inner voice of the protagonist, the double has the freedom to speak at will. If the protagonist disagrees with the double, he alters rather than ignores the double's message. The double also mirrors the non-verbal movements and body posture of the protagonist. The double focuses on the primary emotion implicit in the protagonist's statements or questions. He is most helpful to the extent that he becomes a mirror reflecting those images that the protagonist needs to look at (Haskell, 1975).

The empty-chair technique serves as a neutral auxiliary ego in the sense that it is easy to talk to or to project onto. The protagonist may also reverse roles with the significant others symbolized by the empty chair (Blatner, 1973).

In the soliloquy, the protagonist is instructed to talk about his or her concerns or conflict as he or she walks around the stage. This gives information to the director about the nature of the problem. It is best used to warm up the protagonist to an emotional situation or to calm down the protagonist after a catharsis (Haskell, 1975; Z. Moreno, 1966).

A key figure in the success of the psychodrama is the director. The goal of the director is to provide experiences which will prepare each participant to derive greater satisfaction in the group. In addition to analytical skills, the warmth, empathy, and emotional expansiveness of the director are most essential (Haskell, 1975).

J. L. Moreno's (1954) advice to the director was: "Do not pay the price of spontaneity for smoothness, regularity, orderliness, continuity and elegance. Do not sell the principle for a mess of pottage" (p. 111).

A general rule in directing is to depend chiefly upon the protagonist to provide the clues as to how to carry on the production. The psychodrama director has the opportunity to intervene with various techniques so as to hinder the protagonist from "not playing the game" (J. L. Moreno, 1966, p. 26).

Martin Haskell (1975) had this to say about directing a psychodrama:

> I do not agree with those who maintain that certain "personality" characteristics predetermine success or failure in the role of psychodrama director. In my view, any professionally qualified person can be trained to be an excellent director and one can begin to acquire skill in directing by learning how to best warm up a group. (p. 123)

The action part of a successful psychodrama often

ends with a moment of either catharsis or recognition on the part of the protagonist. Even if there is no satisfactory conclusion within the action part of the psychodrama, the group can use the closure period to examine its reactions to the process, its feelings of incompletion, or issues with the director (Blatner, 1973).

One main purpose of the closure is to help the protagonist integrate the issues he has just dramatized and prepare to move from the reality of the psychodrama to that of the everyday world outside. The director encourages the protagonist to review his/her drama and express his/her present feelings. If the protagonist needs support, the director can encourage the group to share its own life experiences (Haskell, 1975).

Sharing is a major part of the closure process. Its value is not only to the protagonist but also to those group members who have made an identification with the protagonist. In sharing, the group will have a chance to express its feelings and move toward a more balanced state. An authentic psychodrama, deeply felt by the protagonist and strongly supported by the auxiliaries, will touch the group (Blatner, 1973).

Closure ties the protagonist back into the group and gives him/her a regenerated sense of integration.

Many group members are deeply affected by a psychodrama, and time is necessary to express and explore how the psychodrama relates to them (Z. Moreno, 1990).

The director must identify and tie together whatever loose ends are left. The concept of integration during this phase is critical for every member of the group. Blatner sees this tying together, or integrating, in two parts:

> (1) De-roling - auxiliaries state to the protagonist what they felt and what it was like to be in their designated roles.
>
> (2) Sharing - the audience gives feedback to the protagonist by discussing personal reactions to the psychodrama episode Group members share relevant personal experiences, but do not analyze, interpret or ask questions of protagonist. It is important that during sharing, uncommunicated feelings are expressed. (Blatner, 1973, p. 87)

Closure is the most difficult part of psychodrama. One ground rule Martin Haskell (1975) emphasizes was to limit the discussion and sharing phase of a psychodrama to a sharing of experiences and to refrain from analyzing or criticizing persons who participate in the action.

Martin Haskell (1975) expresses his views on psychodrama in this way:

> There is no better opportunity for a person to experience existential validation than a psychodrama in which he can re-enact traumatic portions of his life experience, exposing his faults and weaknesses and find that members of the group sympathize, empathize, and even love him as he really is. He need no longer question his acceptance by others with the "if they only knew" thought. The mask is off, they do know, and they accept him with his faults. (p. 149)

Is there a place for psychodrama at this time in western civilization? J. L. Moreno (1934) ventured a prediction in Who Shall Survive? He wrote:

> When the nineteenth century came to an end and the final accounting was made, what emerged as its greatest contribution to the mental and social sciences was the idea of the unconscious and its cathexes. When the twentieth century will close its doors that which I believe will come out as the greatest achievement is the idea of spontaneity-creativity and the significant, indelible link between them. It may be said that the efforts of the two centuries complement one another. If the nineteenth century looked for the "lowest" common denominator of mankind, the unconscious; the twentieth century discovered, or rediscovered, its "highest" common denominator, spontaneity-creativity. (p. 112)

IV. WORKSHOP DEVELOPMENT

A. Description of the Workshop

Introduction. The purpose of this project was to design a workshop to train parents in effective methods of child rearing in the '90s using psychodramatic techniques.

The origin of America's troubled children can be traced to America's troubled families. It is there that the child receives his first impressions and develops attitudes and ideas that carry him through later life. The strengths and weaknesses of young families will determine, in large part, whether this new generation grows into good citizens, workers, and parents.

Description of the workshop. The name of the workshop is: Parent Workshop Using Psychodramatic Techniques. The workshop emphasis is on helping parents to learn successful parenting techniques by becoming aware of their present parenting style and its effect on their family: their own levels of self-esteem; their methods of relating as a family; and their position as a leader in setting goals for self and family.

Family conditions have a major impact on children's emotional well-being and on their scholastic and social success. Parents are the key to helping them become healthy, responsible people equipped with the skills to solve the problems of tomorrow (Satir, 1988).

The content of the workshop is based on review of literature on parenting in Chapter II and includes the following areas:

1. Parent Awareness of Current Child-Rearing Strategies
   a. Examining parental tapes from childhood
   b. Effect of parental tapes from childhood
2. Self-Esteem: Its Importance and Its Effect
   a. Awareness of parent's self-esteem level
   b. Awareness of how parent's words and actions affect a child's self-esteem
3. Relationships in a Family
   a. Parent relationship as a couple
   b. Parent relationship with children
4. Goal Setting for the Family
   a. Parents as family executives—long-range plans
   b. Parents as teachers—day-to-day plans

The process of the workshop derives from the review of the literature on psychodrama in Chapter III. It includes psychodramatic techniques such as introductory talk by director, warm-up activities for the group, choice of a protagonist, enactment of an issue that is a common concern, sharing feelings and reactions to enactment, and closing thoughts that focus on the issue of the psychodrama. Handouts and homework assignments on topic for the day will be handled last.

Goals of the workshop. The workshop aim is to provide the opportunity for parents to examine their present style of parenting, determine its effectiveness, and set goals for any changes they want to make. Parents will examine their levels of self-esteem and determine how their own self-esteem level affects their children. Psychodramatic techniques will be used to address these workshop aims.

Characteristics of the workshop leader. The leader needs training in effective parenting techniques and familiarity with research on developmental stages of childhood. The leader also should be familiar with the psychodrama techniques and principles. He/she needs the clinical skill of sensitivity to the moment and the

ability to communicate at the right time in an effective way. His/her behavior models for the group warmth and openness (Leveton, 1977).

All forms of therapy are a form of reparenting. A leader of psychodrama gives permission to be spontaneous, to experiment, to risk, to play, and to change (Haskell, 1975).

Psychodrama is a way to help people express emotion. The leader realizes that parenting has many issues which are emotional and difficult. He/she needs to approach the workshop with the conviction that psychodrama can help parents confront issues of vital importance to them and their children.

The leader also needs to be aware of how far the group is willing to experiment. He/she is an observer of the nonverbal gestures and aware of the mood of the group so that all can have a successful experience.

Number of participants. A limit of 20 participants would give the parents a chance to get to know each other and participate more often in the psychodrama enactments. It would also be a comfortable number for a beginning psychodrama leader.

Supplies.

1. Name tags.
2. Construction paper for art work.
3. Crayons/markers/pens/pencils.
4. Cassette player and tapes.
5. Handouts for each day.
6. Notebook paper.
7. Coffee, rolls, fruits.

Setup.

1. A room appropriate to the size of the group. Should be able to hold 20 chairs, one or two small tables, and room to sit in a circle with stage area in center.

2. Check lighting and room temperature. Ability to dim lights desirable. Temperature is important for maximum comfort.

Budget.

1. Workshop leader fees.
2. Workshop supplies.
3. Refreshments (four days).
4. Lunch (available information about places to eat in the locality).

B. Workshop: Parent Workshop Using Psychodramatic Techniques

Day 1

Registration. From 9:00 a.m. to 9:30 a.m. Check-in time. Fill out name tags. Coffee, juice, and rolls. Time for informal introductions.

Purpose: Informal chatter with group members. Gather information about group. Assess group atmosphere.

Morning Session. 9:30 a.m. to 12:00 noon

First Activity: The leader talks to group about the goals of the four-day workshop and focus of first day's activities.

Purpose: Director will be communicating his/her style, allowing the group to know and trust him/her. Psychodrama will be presented as a way to deal with problems through actions rather than words.

Warm-Up Activity #1. Ask each member to find a partner—someone whom he/she does not know. Find out partner's name and two facts about him/her. Then each partner introduces the other partner to the group and shares with the group the two facts.

Purpose. Getting to know each other's name and face and easing group into active participation.

Warm-Up Activity #2. Group stands up, mills around, and then selects a different partner. Partners will take turns sharing one idea that demonstrates the best part of being a parent, and then one idea that demonstrates the most difficult part of parenting.

Purpose. Focusing in on parenting joys and difficulties.

Warm-Up Activity #3. Sit in a close circle. Participants state their name again and one thing they hope to learn from the workshop.

Purpose. Build group cohesion and get a sense of the problem areas in parenting for the group. Be looking for protagonist who has problem in common with group.

Lunch Break: 12:00 noon to 1:00 p.m.

Afternoon Session. 1:00 p.m. to 3:00 p.m.

First Activity. Music and dance. Teach group Country and Western Line Dance "Elvira" (Appendix A).

Purpose. To provide an opportunity for movement and relaxation and promote a joyful atmosphere. Create a readiness for action and movement.

Warm-Up Activity #4. Share article "Fresh Voices" by young people on least favorite parental messages. Participants write 10 statements which were repeated

often to them in childhood. Can be positive or negative statements. Use mood music for relaxation.

Purpose. Bring into awareness parental tapes from childhood which can dictate how individual thinks and behaves today.

Warm-Up Activity #5. Each participant shares his/her 10 statements with the group. Tally repeats.

Purpose. Awareness of commonality of messages. Gradually increasing involvement.

Action. Leader sits next to member in circle who has shown strong emotion, hurt, pain, or anger in reading his/her list and whose issue seems common to the group. Ask that person to set the scene for one of the remarks and lead that person to the center of the group. Group members take part in enactment.

Purpose. Leader encourages protagonist chosen to act in here and now (present tense wording) and become involved in the scene. Leader speaks in present tense as he/she directs. Movement toward core conflict and greater emotional involvement.

Sharing. After enactment ends, supportive feedback from group members. If time, do more than one enactment. Members share feelings they had related to enactment, but not an intellectual analysis. Stress

participant using "I" messages, rather than "you" messages. Emphasis on self-disclosure.

Closing. Summarize aim of day's workshop which was to bring into awareness parental tapes and how they influence beliefs and attitudes of the present.

Closing Ritual. Form double circle with participants facing each other. As music plays softly, participants move around circle, stopping at each person, making eye contact, smiling, repeating their name and giving one compliment. May hug if feels comfortable.

Handouts. Copy of "Poisonous Pedagogy" by Alice Miller (Appendix B).

Homework. Write down as many parental messages as you can recall. Add to sheet started in class. List under Positive or Negative. Ask mate to make a list of his/her own. Bring list to class.

Day 2

Morning Session. 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon

First Activity. Leader circulates with group informally over coffee.

Purpose. Continue establishing rapport and deepening knowledge of group. Pick up moods and needs of group.

Second Activity. Review of previous day's activities and homework. Comments and questions regarding Day One. Sharing of homework tasks, and encouragement to all to finish assigned task in order to be aware of parental tapes.

Purpose. Involve as many participants as possible in sharing.

Third Activity. Talk by leader on the importance and effect of self-esteem on children.

Purpose. To focus attention on topic of the day to which activities will be directed.

Warm-Up Activity #1. Each participant writes a list of qualities which he/she feels describes him/her, both positive and negative.

Purpose. Focus on participant's view of self.

Warm-Up Activity #2. Write qualities on the board under Positive and Negative as members read out their list and keep a tally of number of times quality mentioned.

Purpose. Establish qualities that predominate in group. Use information gleaned to focus on protagonist.

Break. 10:30 a.m. to 10:45 a.m.

Warm-Up Activity #3. Think of a sentence you would like to hear from a member of your family. Be

that person and say the sentence. State name of person you would like to make that remark and what the person would say. Go around circle.

Purpose. Reveals self-esteem needs not being met.

Warm-Up Activity #4. Think of a sentence you really would not want to hear from someone else. Can be a family member, co-worker, friend, or mate. Be that person and say the sentence.

Purpose. To demonstrate how words can heal and affect self-esteem.

Warm-Up Activity #5. Choose a partner. Choose someone you do not know. One partner is A, the other B. Partner A sits with palms up on lap and maintains eye contact. Partner B sends negative thoughts (no words) and disapproving looks to Partner A. Now Partner B sends loving thoughts to Partner A. Reverse and repeat above directions.

Purpose. How feelings convey a message as potent as words.

Sharing. Participants share feelings about previous activities.

Purpose. Awareness of effect of words and feelings.

Lunch Break. 12:00 noon to 1:00 p.m.

Afternoon Session. 1:00 p.m. to 3:00 p.m.

First Activity. Practice dance taught on first day.

Purpose. Movement to create energy and joy. Build esteem by learning a new skill.

Warm-Up Activity #6. Have participants think about interaction with their children and how their words and feelings may be affecting their children. Ask for a volunteer to work with director on the way he/she interacts at present and how he/she would like it to be. May use empty chair or auxiliaries.

Purpose. Enact feelings and words rather than talk about them. Role-playing conflicts in a setting that closely resembles real life.

Sharing. Group shares feelings about previous activities, using "I" messages.

Purpose. Awareness of choices in parenting and effect of words and feelings. Support for protagonist.

Closing. Review activities of the day. Read "I Need" by Lucia Capacchione.

Closing Ritual. As on first day.

Handouts. "I Need" by Lucia Capacchione (Appendix C) and "How to Talk to Kids" article (Appendix D).

Homework. Write all the things you like about yourself as if you were writing to another person.

Day 3

Morning Session. 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon

First Activity. Informal talk over coffee. Leader circulates among parents.

Purpose. Parents become better acquainted with each other and can begin building a support group. Leader listens, observes, and socializes.

Second Activity. Discussion of homework and give opportunity for questions and comments.

Purpose. Involvement in workshop topics.

Third Activity. Talk by leader on relationships in a family.

Purpose. To warm up group to focus on topic of family interactions.

Warm-Up Activity #1. Art activity. Parents draw their family tree using examples presented or creating their own. White construction paper, 11 x 18, crayons, pens, pencils, markers available. See Family Tree example (Appendix E).

Purpose. Create an interest in family lineage and characteristics. Display drawings around room to help develop focus for the day.

Break. 10:30 a.m. to 10:45 a.m.

Warm-Up Activity #2. Visualize a person who was supportive to you as a child. Write down the

characteristics of this person. Display list of adjective words so that parents can choose those that best express their feelings.

Purpose. To develop awareness of qualities that enrich and support people.

Warm-Up Activity #3. Group shares memories of people who nurtured and supported them in childhood.

Purpose. To recall happy childhood memories to remind parents of importance of building these types of memories.

Lunch Break. 12:00 noon to 1:00 p.m.

Afternoon Session. 1:00 p.m. to 3:00 p.m.

First Activity. Practice "Elvira" dance.

Purpose. Change of pace. Relaxation and rejuvenation. Encourage parents to find a way to relax when things are stressful.

Warm-Up Activity #4. Examine role in your family of childhood. Some of the roles often chosen are Miss Helpless, Rescuer, Caretakers, Stars, Heroes, Heroines, Rebel, Scapegoat, Parent's Parent, Super-Responsible, or Saint. Place chart with names of roles on board. Participants write down which roles they played. Later share around the circle about roles they played.

Purpose. To ponder how this role has affected their adult life and cause them to question the roles their children may be assuming.

Warm-Up Activity #5. Ask someone to volunteer to sculpt their family. Family dynamics are displayed by distance and closeness. Lost Child would be in an isolated corner. Rescuer would be near mother or father. Boss of family could be placed standing on a chair. Auxiliaries for the roles are chosen by the protagonist.

Purpose. To set the stage for beginning of an enactment.

Action. Continue psychodrama based on above sculpture.

Purpose. If protagonist is able to achieve expression of any emotions, such as anger, fear, sorrow, regret, etc., the session is seen as a successful one (Haskell, 1975).

Sharing. Family relationships have commonality and universality which touch deep strains. Sharing "I" messages about family role and the effect on them. Support for protagonist and the messages of his/her family.

Purpose. Sharing bonds group together and provides support and empathy.

Closing. Comments on enactment and appreciation to all who have participated. Read Anne Frank's story of relation with mother.

Closing Ritual. As on first day.

Handouts. Anne Frank article, "How I Feel" (Appendix F).

Homework. Fill in missing blanks of Family Tree.

Day 4

Morning Session. 9:00 a.m. to 12:00 noon

First Activity. Leader circulates among parents. Social interaction and sharing over coffee.

Purpose. Building friendship and developing social skills. Relaxed format for beginning of day.

Second Activity. Review previous day's activities and ask for comments about Family Tree homework.

Purpose. Involvement of participants. Chance to note areas of concern and nonverbal behavior of group.

Third Activity. Leader talks on topic of the day. Goal setting—long- and short-term planning. Discuss role of parent as executive leader in home.

Purpose. To help parents view themselves as teachers and leaders.

Warm-Up Activity #1. Magic Shop. Directions in Appendix G. Focus on bargaining aspects to clarify goals of parents.

Purpose. Provides a method for exploration of self. Resolution is not of main importance. Serves to highlight an impasse.

Lunch Break. 12:00 noon to 1:00 p.m.

Afternoon Session. 1:00 p.m. to 3:00 p.m.

Warm-Up Activity #2. Discuss basic need for a human being to pursue a goal. Each participant talks about the goals he/she has for his/her family. Each goal written on chart and chart displayed.

Purpose. Awareness of goals now in their thoughts.

Warm-Up Activity #3. Each participant selects five goals he/she wants to pursue for his/her family. May use charts for suggestions. Draw picture of self, obstacles, and goals. Place easy-to-reach goals close to self and label obstacles between self and goals.

Purpose. Visible representation of goals for family. Realistic assessment of difficulties in attaining goals.

Action. Ask for volunteer to enact difficulties or challenges that will face him/her in trying to reach goal. Leader interviews protagonist and sets up scene in which challenge is likely to occur. Auxiliaries play supporting roles.

Purpose. Dealing with emotional and realistic obstacles to family goals. Awareness of need for a support group to reach goals.

Sharing. Involve group in discussing obstacles they fear and derive suggestions to help others with their obstacles. Encourage use of "I" statements.

Purpose. Share the ideas of group which have worked for them. Encourage use of "I" messages.

Closing. Comments by leader in review of four-day workshop and appreciation to group for their participation.

Handouts. "Five Freedoms" by Virginia Satir (Appendix H) and list of recommended books for parents (Appendix I).

Closing Ritual Circle. While the song "One Day at a Time" is playing, form double circle and thank each member for being a part of group. Leader gets in circle. Can exchange anything special they have to say to one another.

Summary. This chapter described the workshop "Parent Workshop Using Psychodramatic Techniques." This workshop was designed for parents. This chapter included the overall organization of the four-day workshop with a timetable of activities as well as the

purpose of each of them. It also described the desired facilities, supplies, characteristics of the leader, and goals of the workshop. The aim of the workshop was to assist parents in being aware of their parenting style, deal with the importance of self-esteem, observe family interactions, and set goals for the family. The method of examining these issues would be psychodrama.

V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

A. Summary

The purpose of this thesis is to reveal the extent of the problem of children from troubled families; to identify the causes of the problem; and to formulate a plan to remediate the causes of the problem.

In Chapter I, the status of children in America, in California, and in the Bay Area was examined. Statistics indicate a generation of children at risk from many factors. Families in which alcohol and drug abuse, sexual abuse, and child abuse were present seriously affected the outcome of parenting. Mental illness, poverty, poor nutrition, and lack of hygiene similarly affected the results of parenting. Unwed teenage mothers, early teenage marriages, and lack of employable skills often led to a cycle of poverty and inadequate parenting.

A pattern of parenting established in a dysfunctional family of origin was often repeated by successive generations. Therefore, it was the conclusion of the author that one cause which led to the alarming statistics of children at risk could be prevented by changing the pattern of parenting.

A literature search for information on parenting which could provide a guide to more successful child rearing outcomes was conducted. Chapter II reveals the major issues that affect parenting results. A parent's ability to incorporate these principles into his/her attitudes and actions would greatly improve the chances of his/her children being successful and happy.

The third objective was to find a method to use in training parents to change dysfunctional styles of child rearing learned in childhood. The method selected was psychodrama. Chapter III examines the principles and techniques of psychodrama. Psychodrama was chosen because it gives the freedom to express emotion and handles problems with action therapy, rather than just talk. Also in psychodrama, a person is encountering conflicts in a setting more closely resembling a real life situation.

The research and development portion of this thesis focused on developing a four-day workshop using as topics the major issues researched in Chapter II. The issues chosen for the four-day workshop were: raising the level of parent awareness on parenting styles; the importance of self-esteem of parents and its effect on their children; family relationships and interactions; and setting family goals.

The goal of the workshop was to support, enlighten, and empower parents to make changes in their actions and attitudes in raising their children so that they and their children could be happier. The goal also included aiding parents to reach an emotional level where alternative behaviors could be considered.

B. Conclusions

Statistics paint a grim picture for a great number of children in our society. Family systems are producing results which are revealed in statistics on homelessness, poverty, drug and alcohol abuse, unwed mothers, high school dropouts, gang violence, runaways, sexual abuse, child abuse, mental illness, low academic skills, and lack of skills for employment.

School personnel feel overwhelmed by the number of problems that children from those homes present. Teachers and administrators are experiencing burnout from daily coping with the effects of family life on children they teach. Many children come to school ill-prepared physically or emotionally to cope with the demands of school.

Industry is also experiencing the effects of inadequate parenting. Low productivity and low academic preparedness are costing businesses billions

of dollars in retraining workers to adequately do their jobs.

Many communities are not addressing the needs of children. But they do deal with the effects of these unmet needs in criminal activities, alcohol and drug abuse, runaways, and gang violence.

Experts agree that the greatest need of children is for a better childhood. Research indicates that the best way to help children get that better childhood is to help the parents.

The thesis of this paper is that one way we can help parents is to train them in parenting skills. Inadequate parenting results in negative family situations. Literature research demonstrates that parental training is effective in helping parents feel more adequate and children more responsive to parental advice.

One main consensus of opinion in the literature on parenting was that effective parents were conscious parents. They were aware of the results they wanted, they had a goal, and actions were geared to reaching this goal. Unaware parents operated on "automatic" and parented by repeating the parenting style of their family no matter how dysfunctional or how oppressed they felt by it as children.

If most experts in parenting could have their way, no person would be allowed to become a parent without training. But since our society is a democratic one, another option is to give parents the choice and the chance for training. A primary focus needs to be the troubled families that the statistics represent.

There are many different methods of parent training. Psychodrama is a method which deals with the emotions and conflicts of situations and can be used effectively in a group setting or individually. Rather than listening to a lecture on parenting, parents are participating in role playing. Group members experience catharsis as they become emotionally touched by the situation of the protagonist. Sharing involves the group again at the close of the action. Warm-up activities prepare the parents to participate in such activities.

The author presumes that parents will find the workshop helpful and will wish to pursue other topics of common interest on an ongoing basis. Parents who participate in the workshop have the opportunity to form a support group for each other.

It is hoped this research will draw attention to the needs of children in trouble and to their troubled families. The tools and means to help families in

difficulty are available. The magnitude of family problems is too great to be ignored. Business, education, government, and the community all need to combine to support troubled families and all will reap the benefits.

It is also the hope of the author that research projects backed by government and business grants will be undertaken to test the validity of the thesis of this paper. Breaking generational patterns of dysfunctional parenting would undoubtedly result in more productive citizens and improved family life.

C. Recommendations

The author offers the following recommendations for parent training in the future:

1. Every high school employ a teacher/counselor to work with parents and teach parenting skills to high school students at every grade level.

2. Industry sponsor parental classes at the job and pay parents to attend two hours a week.

3. Government recognize the vested interest it has in improved parenting as reflected in improvement of tax base, decrease in crime and decrease in welfare benefits, and provide the necessary funds to pay for a teacher/counselor of parenting at every high school.

5. Communities emphasize the importance of families and employ a family-oriented counselor whose sole purpose would be to find ways to strengthen the families of the community. Each community center would make available free parenting classes.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX B

"POISONOUS PEDAGOGY"

Alice Miller, in her book For Your Own Good (1983), has grouped these parenting rules under the title "Poisonous Pedagogy." The subtitle of the book is "Hidden Cruelty in Child Rearing and the Roots of Violence." She argues that poisonous pedagogy is a form of violence which violates the rights of children. Such violation is then re-enacted when these children become parents.

1. Adults are the masters of the dependent child.

2. Adults determine in a godlike fashion what is right and wrong.

3. The child is held responsible for the anger of adults.

4. Parents must always be shielded.

5. The child's life-affirming feelings pose a threat to the autocratic parent.

6. The child's will must be "broken" as soon as possible.

7. All this must happen at a very early age so the child "won't notice" and will not be able to expose the adults.

APPENDIX C

"I NEED"

I need . . .
Love above all
to love myself and be
a good friend to myself.

I need . . .
to be touched by something
outside myself
both physically and spiritually.

I need . . .
to move my body . . .
to dance
or do Tai Chi
or move my body in some way.

I need . . .
to let my creativity out . . .
to let myself out . . .
with what is around me.
input and output.

I need air
and nature
and to understand and experience
the origins of the world . . .
the forests, the life . . .

I need freedom
to live my life
as I see fit
to go outside for walks
at night if I want
to run my own existence.

I need . . .
to be me and be allowed to be me.

by Lucia Capacchione
The Creative Journal
(1979)

APPENDIX D

HOW TO TALK SO KIDS WILL LISTEN

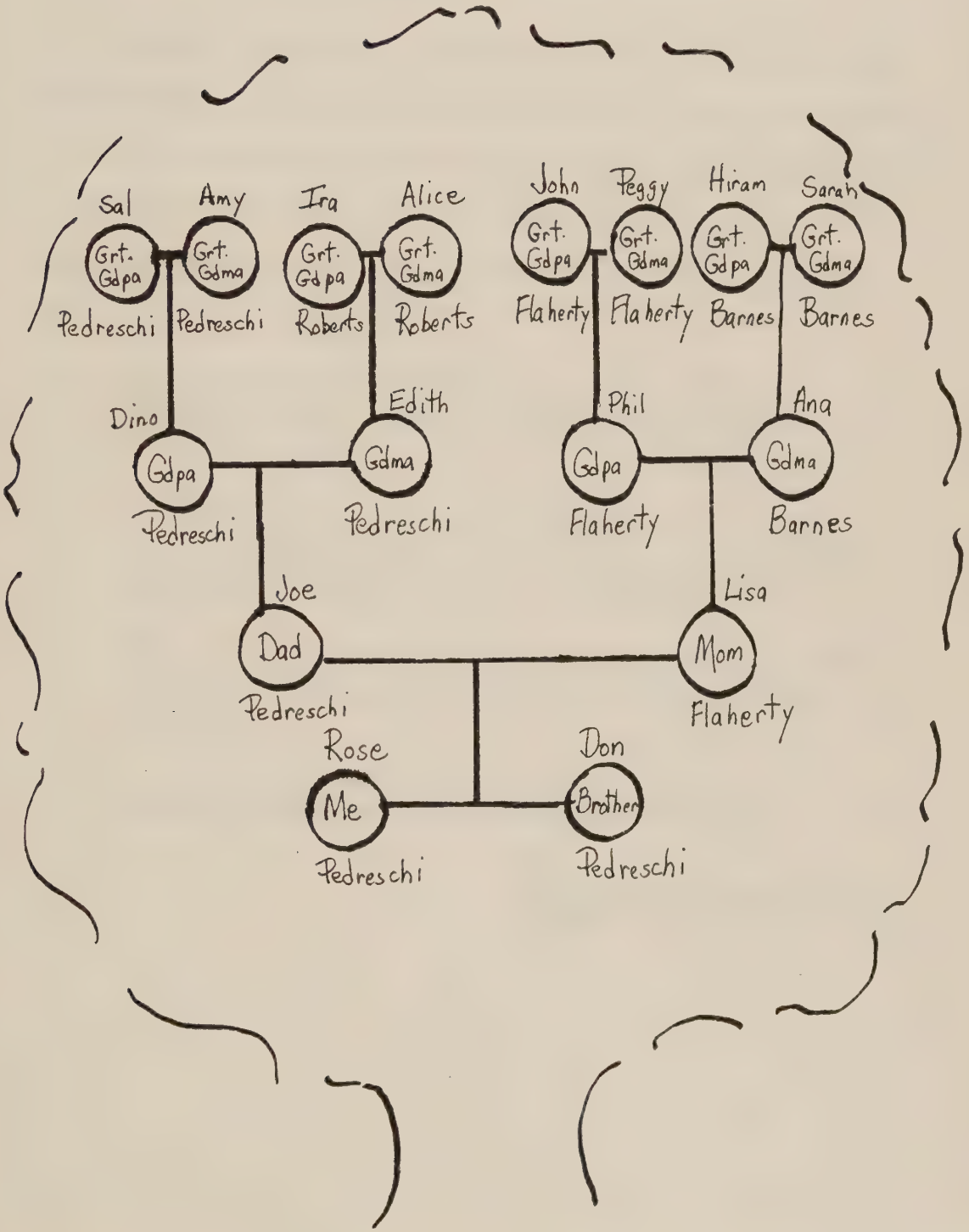
AND LISTEN SO KIDS WILL TALK

By Adele Faber and
Elaine Mazlish
1980

1. Describe what you see, or describe the problem.
   "There's a wet towel on the bed."
2. Give information.
   "The towel is getting my blanket wet."
3. Say it with a word.
   "The towel."
4. Describe what you feel.
   "I don't like sleeping in a wet bed!"
5. Write a note.
   (Above towel rack)
   "Please put me back so I can dry."
   Thanks!
   Your Towel

APPENDIX E

SAMPLE OF FAMILY TREE



APPENDIX F

"HOW I FEEL, WHAT I THINK"

A very important part of knowing ourselves and each other is knowing how we feel and what we think and sharing ourselves with others. Learning to communicate how we feel to ourselves, first, can help us communicate better with others. Anne Frank talks to her mother on paper:

> I am boiling with rage . . . I'd like to stamp my feet, scream, give Mummy a good shaking, cry, and I don't know what else . . .
>
> I really ought not to write this . . . but still, whatever you think of me, I can't keep everything to myself, so I'll remind you of my opening words—"Paper is patient!"
>
> But, still, the brightest spot of all is that at least I can write down my thoughts and feelings, otherwise, I would be absolutely stifled!
>
> I can shake off everything if I write; my sorrows disappear, my courage is reborn . . .
>
> Anne Frank
> Diary of a Young Girl
> 1958

APPENDIX G

DESCRIPTION OF MAGIC SHOP

The director has the group imagine a small shop on the stage. The group is told that on the shelves of this magic shop all manner of wonderful qualities can be found. Anyone who wishes to buy may come into the shop.

Someone volunteers to become the customer-protagonist. When the customer first asks for his heart's desire, his requests are often quite vague. I want "love," "wisdom," "success," etc. As the first task, the shopkeeper engages the customer in a discussion in order to clarify more specifically what he wants, e.g., from whom does he want love? What conditions will he accept? The conversation should remain within the metaphor of a shopkeeper simply trying to understand what is desired. The more general the desire, the more expensive or inexpensive it may be: "You want love from everybody?" "Well, that will cost quite a bit more." The negotiation of the price comprises the second task within the technique. Money cannot be offered. The shopkeeper can only accept, in barter, some quality or facet of the customer's life or personality which he would be willing to sacrifice—

something that someone else might wish to buy some day from the magic shop. The statement, "I don't know" betrays a passive-dependent stand and should be redefined as: "I'm having difficulty thinking of something." The Magic Shop is an excellent technique for the purpose of clarifying goals and examining the consequences of one's choices (Blatner, 1973).

APPENDIX H

"THE FIVE FREEDOMS"

1. The freedom to see and hear (perceive) what is here and now, rather than what was, will be or should be.

2. The freedom to think what one thinks, rather than what one should think.

3. The freedom to feel what one feels, rather than what one should feel.

4. The freedom to want (desire) and to choose what one wants, rather than what one should want.

5. And the freedom to imagine one's own self-actualization, rather than playing a rigid role or always playing it safe.

Virginia Satir
Conjoint Family Therapy
1983

APPENDIX I

RECOMMENDED READING

Below is a list of 10 recommended books for parents to begin their orientation to a new way of thinking about parenting.

Bluestein, J., & Collins, L. (1987). Parents in a pressure cooker. A guide to responsible and loving parent-child relationships. Albuquerque: I.S.S. Publications.

Brown, J. R. (1986). I only want what's best for you. A parent's guide to raising emotionally healthy children. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Faber, A., & Mazlish, E. (1980). How to talk so kids will listen and listen so kids will talk. New York: Avon Books.

Firestone, R. (1989). Compassionate child rearing. New York: Plenum Publishing.

Forward, S. (1989). Toxic parents. New York: Bantam Books.

Hart, L. (1987) The winning family-Increasing self-esteem in your child and yourself. New York: Dodd, Mead & Company.

Koffinke, C. (1991). "I'll never do that to my kids." The parenting traps of adult children. Minneapolis: Deaconess Press.

Pearsall, P. (1990). Power of the family. New York: Doubleday.

Phillips, D. (1989). How to give a child a great self-image. New York: Random House.

Procaccine, J., & Kiefaber, M. W. (1983). Plus parenting—Take charge of your family. New York: Doubleday and Company.

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Baldwin, B. A. (1988). Beyond the cornucopia kids. Wilmington, NC: Direction Dynamics.

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Blatner, A., & Blatner, A. (1988). Foundations of psychodrama. New York: Springer Publishing Company.

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Boubion, G. (1991, June 21). State's kids suffer increasing poverty. San Jose Mercury News, p. B1.

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Brown, J. (1986). I only want what's best for you. New York: St. Martin's Press.

Burr, J., & Maidens, M. (1980). America's troubled children. New York: Facts on File, Inc.

Buscaglia, L. (1975). The disabled and their parents: A counseling challenge. Thoroughfare, NJ: Charles Slack Publishing.

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Children Now. (1991). Report card: A county by county guide. Sacramento, CA: Author.

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